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A SUMMARY OF SOME PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING ARITHMETIC

As experimental studies of methods of teaching and learning have been extended, principles of teaching have been evolved that are based on scientific evidence. There are two main sources of such data. Experiments in the teaching of arithmetic provide principles and suggestions for that subject. Studies of the learning process may result in important applications to the school subjects. The usefulness of methods directly based on quantitative data is obvious. The principal issue is the dependability of the investigation. There is some reluctance, however, to apply the general laws and facts of learning to any school subject without specific evidence that such laws and facts are valid in the particular subject concerned as well as for the type of learning in the original investigation. Moreover, the conditions prevailing in general learning situations may not find any exact parallel in the classroom. For the most part, therefore, the results of studies of teaching and learning arithmetic are more dependable than principles obtained from the learning of other activities. The latter should be checked through carefully controlled experiments before they are applied to the particular subject of arithmetic. Evidence of the first type is accumulating in substantial amounts, thus freeing educators of their dependence on data of the second type as well as on opinion and conjecture.

Despite the relatively large amount of information that is available, there are many problems that remain unsolved. Inference and opinion are the only guides in the absence of definite evidence of an experimental nature.

The present article is a summary of the principles of teaching

and learning arithmetic. Space does not permit citation of references nor detailed comment on each of the statements. The previous summaries of Monroe¹ and Knight² have been used freely, especially the latter's excellent treatment of the subject in the current Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education.³ To these summaries a few statements have been added. It is obvious that the points considered in this review do not exhaust the subject. It is believed, however, that they will prove useful to teachers through bringing together the findings of many students of methods in arithmetic.

1. The number concept is the psychological basis of arithmetic.

A large part of its development precedes the child's entrance to school. In the further development of this concept, purposeful experience with concrete objects through counting and measuring are essential. It is likely that more development occurs in the pre-school years than is usually assumed. The child's first expression of the concept is through counting.

2. The development of meaning should always precede the use of its symbols. This applies to the number-names and to the terms expressing quantities and relations such as foot, add, subtract, etc.

3. Drill is necessary in arithmetic. All investigators have shown the importance of drill and the improvement that results from it. The teaching of arithmetic in general and of separate topics in particular cannot be opportunistic and effective at the same time. There are several types of drill as indicated in later statements.

4. Drill is not a substitute for instruction. Such a use of drill results in the habituation of incorrect associations and is extremely detrimental to the aims of the subject.

5. Arithmetic computation includes a large number of facts

¹ Monroe, Walter S.: "Principles of Method in Teaching Arithmetic, as Derived from Scientific Investigation." *Eighteenth Yearbook of the Nat. Soc. for the Study of Educ.*, Part II, 1919, 78-95.

² Knight, F. B.: "Arithmetic." *Third Year Book of the Dept. of Superintendence of the N. E. A.*, 1925, 35-109.

Knight, F. B.: "The Superiority of Distributed Practice in Drill in Arithmetic." *Jour. of Educ. Res.*, 15, 1927, 157-165.

³ Knight, F. B.: "Some Considerations of Method." *Twenty-ninth Yearbook of the Nat. Soc. for the Study of Educ.*, 1930, 145-267.

and processes. The identification of these should be based upon the mental processes required rather than on the nature of the mathematical processes.

6. While some transfer of training may be expected in arithmetic, it cannot be relied upon to develop skills to the level that is required of them. Explicit training is therefore necessary in each ability that the subject involves.

7. It is unnecessary and wasteful to teach all that is known about a process. The temptation to teach all that can be taught arises from several sources and must be controlled by definite aims. Such aims will include a definition of what is to be expected of pupils in the process in question.

8. Topics that are taught should receive adequate as opposed to hurried instruction. Unless it is possible to teach a topic adequately, it is probably better to omit it entirely, as such inadequate instruction only accumulates errors and difficulties which will later have to be overcome.

9. Instruction and drill should be interspersed in small amounts so that units of instruction are followed at once by drill and application. The use of large units of instruction with delayed drill creates confusion and difficulties.

10. Instruction should always be followed by drill and application. If drill precedes adequate instruction, errors are consolidated and the effect of the instruction leaves pupils in a worse predicament than they were before.

11. The pupil's attitude should be an active one and the burden of learning should rest with him. Learning is effective only when it is self-activity. Teaching should be interrogative rather than declarative as much as possible.

12. In all learning the intention should be to learn permanently. The learning should never be a penalty or given an unpleasant tone. The tasks should be reasonable.

13. For permanent retention, learning should be carried beyond the point where recall is barely possible. While evidence on this point is somewhat conflicting at present, the ambiguities are due mainly to the fluctuations of extraneous variables. This principle is intimately related to No. 9.

14. Instruction and drill should approach processes and com-

binations from all angles. No important item should be presented in but a single setting. Variety contributes to interest and is necessary to insure the application of the skill under changed conditions of presentation. Pupils should receive instruction and drill in all forms of combinations such as:

$$\begin{array}{r} 4 \quad 5 \\ 5 \quad 4 \\ - \quad - \end{array} \quad 4+5= \quad 5+4= \quad 4+..=9 \quad 5+..=9 \quad 9=4+.., \text{ etc.}$$

15. The different combinations in the four fundamental processes are not of equivalent difficulty. Instruction and drill should distribute emphasis in accordance with the difficulty of the combinations. The difficulty of each combination is partly inherent and partly personal with the pupil. Many texts do not distribute the drill in accordance with this principle, and some combinations receive as much as one hundred times the emphasis accorded others. Investigations have shown that scientifically constructed drill materials yield substantially greater improvements than the same time devoted to haphazard drills.

16. There is widespread doubt about the efficacy of rules and definitions. Rules are frequently memorized without being understood. They are sometimes resorted to in lieu of adequate instruction. They tend to render procedures mechanical rather than logical.

17. Whenever rules and definitions are employed, they should be phrased in language that children understand, with only such technicalities as are necessary. Logical precision and mathematical abstractions absorb attention that should be directed to other parts of the definition or rules or to their meaning as units.

18. "Crutches" of all kinds should be avoided, as they become distinct liabilities as soon as the initial stages of the learning have been passed. Included under this heading are such procedures as counting on fingers, tapping, etc.

19. Articulation should be reduced to a minimum as far as possible. Many pupils are dependent on formulae while adding, subtracting or working examples involving any process. The use of such formulae retards the process, causes lapses of attention, and possesses no advantages. As a glaring instance of dependence on artificial and stereotyped methods, the following instance is noteworthy. A girl worked the example as follows:

- | | |
|---|---|
| 624,576 139,829 <hr style="width: 50px; margin: 0;"/> 484,747 | (1) 9 from 6 you cannot, take 1 from the 7 next door leaves 6, 9 from 10 is 1 and 6 is 7. (2) 2 from 6 leaves 4. (3) 8 from 5 you cannot, take 1 next door leaves 3, 8 from 10 leaves 2 and 5 are 7. (4) 9 from 3 you cannot, go next door, take 1 leaves 1, 9 from 10 is 1 and 3 makes 4. (5) 3 from 1 you cannot, go next door, take 1 from the 6 leaves 5, 3 from 10 is 7 and 1 makes 8. (6) 2 from 6 leaves 4. |
|---|---|

Obviously the formula is a product of earlier instruction. It makes little difference whether the formula is used aloud or silently as the underlying error is the same in both cases. Children should be taught to think numbers rather than to say them to themselves. In column addition each succeeding number should be added to the preceding partial sum without the intervention of a ritual or a formula. Such dependence on these methods of computation is evidence of extremely poor teaching.

20. In column addition grouping digits to make 10 or some other convenient number is not helpful and tends to confusion through the omission or duplication of digits. Skipping about in a column is direct evidence of incomplete mastery of the fundamental combinations and their higher-decade relations. Making ten of two adjacent digits is probably helpful.

21. In addition and multiplication, both forms of each combination must be taught. As far as difficulty and the mental processes are concerned, $4+3$ and $3+4$ are different combinations and both require instruction and drill, as the evidence clearly indicates that a knowledge of one does not guarantee a knowledge of the other.

22. Combinations involving the same digits should be taught together. Thus, $4+3$ and $3+4$ should be taught at the same time. Each of the one hundred basic facts should lead directly to the higher-decade facts, and these should form a series which comprises a single teaching-and-learning unit.

23. Evidence indicates that addition and subtraction should be taught together rather than separately. While only one investigation has dealt with this problem, the weight of the data indicated that the together method was significantly superior to the separate method in five of the six units of the study, while in the sixth the data are open to some objections.

24. By inference but without definite experimental data, it appears that multiplication and division should be taught together rather than separately.

25. The rote memorization of the multiplication table as a whole is to be condemned on several grounds. Even large units from the table are unwieldy. Each number fact requires different presentations and drill. Some unconfirmed evidence indicates that giving pupils a start with the tables and then having them work out the remaining combinations through computation is advantageous. Since the combinations will appear in random order in their subsequent work, the learning of them in formal order hinders their application and easy recall.

26. All combinations must be taught in such a way that pupils will have no difficulty in using them in sequence other than those in which they were originally learned. (See Nos. 14 and 26.)

27. Pupils need to be taught each of the variety of forms by which division is indicated so that they will immediately identify the process whenever it is encountered.

$$45 \div 9 = \qquad 9 \overline{) 45} \qquad 9 \overline{) 45}$$

28. The weight of the evidence favors the subtractive-equal addition method of teaching the processes of subtraction. The differences between the methods are small, and some authorities maintain that the question of the best method of teaching subtraction is an unimportant one. It is said that any method that is well taught will give better results than any other method poorly taught. The complementary method is seldom used.

29. The question of upward versus downward addition is probably even less important than the method of subtraction. Buckingham argues in favor of downward addition, but the evidence is far from conclusive.

30. Each identified skill should be paralleled by valid drill. This principle follows from previous observations since it is necessary to have practice instruction closely with the units of instruction being short and the practice specific.

31. Drill materials should be constructed in accordance with certain specifications that have been derived from the results of experimental investigations. Most of these specifications are discussed under the headings that follow. Drill materials con-

structed haphazardly can scarcely fail to distribute the practice in accordance with the difficulty of the combinations.

32. Pupils vary widely in their ability to learn arithmetic, and all phases of the teaching of the subject should be based on a recognition of these differences. This is particularly true of drill materials, since each pupil should practice what he does not know, not what other pupils don't know. Teaching should and can be individualized even in large classes through the use of adequate texts and suitable drill material. It is not contended that group instruction be supplanted entirely but only that pupils be afforded opportunities of meeting their own needs in so far as these are peculiar to the different members of the class.

33. Practice periods should be frequent enough to prevent loss before the next practice period occurs. The principle of distributed practice periods is generally accepted in educational psychology, but specific recommendations on the exact frequency of the practice periods cannot be made from the evidence available at the present time.

34. Practice periods should be long enough to insure adjustment to the task at hand, but not so long as to induce fatigue or monotony. The length and distribution of the practice periods are considerations that are inseparable. In general it appears that several short practice periods are superior to a few long ones, but the short ones must not be too short.

35. Drills are of at least two kinds. Some are used to create skills, while others are for the purpose of maintaining them. Drills designed to create skills should be confined to the single process with which the instruction has been concerned.

36. Drills for the purpose of maintaining skills should be of the mixed type. All four processes should be represented, and examples of the same process should be presented in different forms. This type of drill is similar in construction to the mixed-fundamental type of test in arithmetical computation. It is believed that this type of drill material is more similar to the life and problem situations involving computation than is the single process type of drill. Authorities differ on this point, but the weight of the evidence favors the mixed type of drill.

37. In the drill materials the examples should be arranged in order of difficulty.

38. Drill units should have standards of performance for at least three degrees of ability. Standards have a definite value in motivation, and their presence is virtually indispensable to the best results. A uniform standard for all degrees of ability is obviously worse than no standards whatever, as it is too low for superior pupils and too high for retarded pupils. The practical difficulties in the way of formulating standards for all levels of ability lead to the compromise of three standards for high, average, and slow pupils, respectively.

39. It follows from the above the standards must be attainable. Persistent failure to attain the standards is discouraging, and dislike for arithmetic is only one of the consequences.

40. Drill units should have time limits, and these must conform to certain specifications. Some types of time limits are bad. The preceding criteria of standards apply. The purpose of time limits is to prevent pupils wasting their time and to afford means of diagnosing the causes of excessive slowness, which is symptomatic of incomplete mastery of the skills of the drill. The time limits should be fairly generous, permitting about 75 per cent of the children to finish. Such directions as "See how many you can do in two minutes" have no value and are even detrimental as well as meaningless.

41. The drill material should afford possibilities of exact diagnosis. Diagnosis leads nowhere if it only localizes the difficulty in a major process or solely in terms of speed. The analysis of errors should be specific and permit immediate improvement.

42. Drill material should include finding errors as well as correct answers when certain conditions are fulfilled. The finding of errors is an important aspect of arithmetic ability and is used widely in checking accounts, etc. Errors should not be presented in drill material until the basic skills have been well developed. When such drill materials are employed, attention should be drawn to existence of the errors. The finding of the errors should, of course, be followed by correcting them.

43. Written drill is superior to oral drill. One of the reasons is that all pupils actively participate in written drill, whereas such may not be the case in oral drill. Both types of drill should be used, as well as drill on combinations of "seen numbers" with "thought numbers."

44. In all phases of learning the emphasis should be on accuracy before speed. Speed can be developed on a basis of accuracy, but it is much more difficult to reverse the process. Initial emphasis on speed leads to the formation of incorrect associations. Too much emphasis is being placed on speed. Complete accuracy, regardless of speed, is certainly more valuable than rapid inaccuracies.

45. The drill materials should be in a form that will enable pupils to evaluate their progress through the year, as the motivating value of a knowledge of progress is very considerable, not only in skill but in attitudes towards the work.

46. Checking increases accuracy and decreases speed, but much of the necessity for checking may be obviated by detailed analyses of pupils' errors and methods of work. Well-directed teaching that secures accuracy through a thorough grounding in the fundamentals can dispense with checking.

47. The unit of work should be the example rather than a group of them, and accuracy is to be sought in the working of each example. The aim of 100 per cent accuracy is therefore misdirected, as it stresses the exercise as a whole rather than the items comprising it. An error in an exercise should receive examination and analysis that will lead to the correction of that specific element and not the repetition of the examples that the pupil knows.

48. Pupils often need to relearn facts and methods. Drills do not afford opportunities of relearning but of reviewing and developing skill in matter that has been learned. Drills and tests should through their diagnostic character indicate what has to be relearned.

49. Drill work should include verbal problems which the teaching of arithmetic should not isolate from computation. It is poor teaching when computation and problem solving are kept separate.

50. Pupils need to be taught the meaning of the technical terms of arithmetic. Arithmetic, like most other subjects, has a vocabulary of its own. This vocabulary must be mastered or problem solving will become a mechanical process of juggling figures.

51. Pupils need to be taught to read arithmetic. This is more than merely the technical terms such as cost, gain, selling price,

discount, and the like. An important cause of poor work in problem solving is inability to read the problem accurately. General training in reading will not give pupils facility in reading arithmetic.

52. Pupils should receive training in estimating the answer. This will aid them in their problem solving.

53. Too much emphasis on obtaining the correct answer to problems without adequate instruction in how to work problems will produce undesirable procedures, guessing, juggling of the numbers, and failure to learn the reason of the operations. Working backwards from the answer is sufficient evidence of misplaced emphasis in teaching as well as ignorance of problem solving on the part of the pupil.

54. Problems should relate to situations that pupils can understand.

55. Problems should be real, vivid, and interesting.

56. Suitable motivation is probably more effective in producing improvement than the slight superiority of one method of teaching over another, provided, of course, that the two are methods in good repute. Motivation through knowledge of success, self-competition, interest, tasks of suitable difficulty, and other factors results in significant progress.

57. Dependable tests should be used. Inventory tests are useful at the beginning of a schedule. Diagnostic tests are for the purpose of disclosing types and causes of errors, while standardized tests measure improvement in larger sections of the subject and provide data for comparisons of several kinds.

58. Errors belong to certain major types with which the teacher should be familiar. Classification of errors will disclose class needs and those that involve only one or two pupils.

59. Initial errors tend to become fixed unless they are overcome at the outset. Such initial errors may reassert themselves even after intervals of complete mastery of the process involved. It is therefore of special importance to prevent initial errors.

60. Projects and dramatizations are helpful in learning arithmetic.

T. G. FORAN.

GIRLS' ATHLETICS IN CATHOLIC HIGH SCHOOLS

"Times change, and we change with them." This time-honored adage contains a truth which few reasonable and intelligent beings would venture to contradict or call in question. A striking exemplification of it is noticeable in recent years in the general attitude of society toward the idea of athletics, especially toward athletics for girls. A few decades ago, high school authorities quite generally regarded such activities as altogether beyond the pale of legitimate school enterprises. Then followed a period of half-hearted toleration of such activities as a necessary evil. Finally, with the growth of a larger conception of secondary school aims came a period of enthusiastic encouragement, so that at the present time the idea that play is a vital necessity in the life of our young people is a rarely contested fact.

Vigorous physical exercise in the form of athletics for girls of high school age is believed to be the best form of physical education. Careful studies by modern experts have shown that such recreational activities are important not only in the physical development of the young, but that they have certain very definite educational values and even a very noticeable effect upon the character of the individual. Wholesome recreation builds good citizens and creates wholesome societal life.

The importance of athletics for our high school girls is best seen in the specific advantages that such exercises afford the participants. Our modern girl is a vital creature brimming over with energy, emotions and ideals which she spends with lavish eagerness. In the athletic activities afforded her she can find a wholesome outlet for much of this pent-up energy. Physically, such activities secure for her organic development that gives vitality, vigor, and functional power to the limit of inherited possibilities. Furthermore, they develop control of the muscular system which gives skill and body resourcefulness, adds grace, carriage, and ease of manner. Nor is this all. The mental benefits derived from these activities are still more pronounced. Drill in vigorous activities requires alertness, effort and determination. The team games develop judgment by requiring a rapid response to a stimulus and make for promptness, decision and keenness of discernment.

But the moral advantages that can be gained by athletics far outweigh both the physical and mental benefits. Much has been written about the character values resultant from participation in athletic games. Since character can best be developed through participation in, and by guidance in those activities which offer the greatest number of conduct situations, it is easily seen that the opportunities afforded by athletic games for the exercise of such virtues as honesty, self-discipline, courage, obedience, loyalty, sympathy and many others, are perhaps greater than in any other single activity. In these games a large number of varying conduct situations are constantly arising. Certainly such possibilities for moral development cannot be overlooked in our Catholic educational plan.

It cannot, however, be stated with truth that all existing systems of athletics insure to the participants the advantages here enumerated. It must be acknowledged that the entire question of athletics involves serious problems for our Catholic high schools which are in essence the same as those worrying other educational institutions. These problems prove increasingly serious in the case of athletics for girls. It is beyond the scope of this paper to discuss these difficulties in a detailed way. In summary they are somewhat as follows:

There is in the first place the danger, in any game, for boys and girls to drift into cheating and unfairness, unless high standards of play are expressly inculcated. Then, the exaggerated importance placed upon winning has resulted in a considerable degree of specialization in athletics, so that the main body of students, who really need the exercise most, derive no benefit from them. Again it is said that athletics has become the dominating factor in all our education, and that other interests, especially the interest in studies and books, are in consequence on a rapid decline. Another objection is the fact that the strain of athletic contests easily leads to physical injury. This, again, is more serious in the girl's participation in competitive sports, for her different anatomical and physiological structure opens the way to more serious types of strain and injury. Moreover, there is a tendency to overindulgence in pleasurable activities, which is likewise more to be feared in the case of the girl.

The present situation in girls' athletics shows a perceptible

drift into competitive sports. It is easily recognized that the greatest known abuses in boys' athletics have arisen in the realm of competitive activities. Hence this tendency in the case of girls' athletics cannot be regarded as wholesome.

Finally, there is the problem of the cost of maintaining an athletic program, which, though not an intrinsic evil, tends nevertheless to be a very real difficulty especially in our Catholic high schools. Some would argue that the advantages to be gained by athletics do not warrant the additional expense they entail. It must be said, however, that if it can be made clear to our Catholic people that the athletic movement is distinctly helpful toward furthering the good, especially the moral good, of our Catholic young people, it will not be a long time until the problem of finance will be practically met.

From a careful comparison of the dangers in athletics with the benefits to be gained from a well-organized system, it cannot but be noticed that the outlook is exceedingly hopeful. It is quite evident that under a properly controlled system the evils that do exist may be practically eliminated. For, wherever a correct program has been organized and given a fair test, school authorities are quite unanimous in the opinion that class work is better, the health of the school children is improved, a wholesome school spirit is developed, and there is less trouble about discipline, owing to the closer relation and better understanding between pupils and teachers.

The present status of girls' athletics in Catholic secondary schools is seen to some extent from a study completed by the writer in May, 1929, in which the activities in 151 Catholic high schools were surveyed. This study represents nearly all sections of the United States, comprising data from 38 different states. In every case the information was obtained by personal letter or, wherever possible, by personal interview with someone intimately connected or well acquainted with the activities in the particular school. Of these 151 schools only 11 have no athletics for girls, but, in 6 of these, athletics for boys has been introduced.

Basketball proves to be far the most popular sport for girls and is played in as many as 129 schools. In a great many places it is an all-year-round game, being played outdoors when the weather is favorable. The general attitude toward basketball

seems to be that it has the general values of the team games, and that it proves interesting and is easily learned by practically all students. In a few institutions, however, authorities were not so favorably disposed toward the sport for the reason that girls enter it with so much enthusiasm that there is great danger of physical injury, and also because of the tendency that exists for girls to follow boys' rules for playing the game. In every case where these objections were offered, it was found that there is no trained leader provided to supervise the athletic activities.

Tennis is a close second, being played in 112 schools. This game is very highly recommended by both teachers and pupils. Its absence on the athletic program was due in every case to a lack of proper courts where it could be played.

Baseball ranks third in popularity, but there were rather serious objections to outdoor baseball for girls on the score that it tends to make girls masculine. However, it has been introduced into as many as 71 schools. In most of these it proved to be not regulation baseball but played according to rules of indoor baseball. Indoor baseball is quite generally approved and is found in 50 schools.

Volley ball stands fourth on the list but seems only recently to be coming into its own. This game received the highest recommendation from teachers and supervisors because it can be adapted to large numbers, and also because it can be enjoyed without waiting to develop a great degree of skill. From the viewpoint of the participants, however, the game is not so popular. The girls say it requires greater physical exertion than does basketball. Whether this criticism comes from the girls' more intense interest in the latter sport, or is actually the case, could not be definitely ascertained.

Besides these there were hockey, swimming, soccer, hand ball, pass ball, archery and other sports, but these were more or less local, and not stressed in any general way.

It is apparent, then, that though the movement is still quite young, our Catholic high schools are going in more and more for girls' athletics. It is also evident, however, that in many cases the systems introduced into the schools are not entirely satisfactory. The question then is, "How might present programs be improved?"

To accomplish the ideal for our girls the first requisite is that Catholic teachers and supervisors, religious and others, become thoroughly familiar with the specific aims and entirely convinced of the good that can be gained by a perfectly organized athletic plan. Unless the aims are clearly outlined, the distinct advantages of such activities can never be realized. So long as the idea exists that games are inaugurated merely for the sake of pleasant pastime, we cannot look for any telling results. The situation is in many senses an urgent and a critical one. It calls for something more than the patient toleration or perfunctory approval given to girls' athletics in so many of our otherwise splendidly equipped Catholic high schools. Our schools have a great opportunity to help the girl, and there is no reason why the question of athletics should receive less serious thought and consideration than any other question of discipline or curriculum. Once the question of athletics has come completely into its own in the minds of our teachers, no better suggestion for improving the system can be offered than that the platform by the Women's Division of the N. A. A. F. for girls' athletics be made the basis for the program of such activities in Catholic institutions.

Briefly stated, the aims proposed by this organization are: (1) to afford means for a better physical development than would otherwise be obtained; (2) to develop athletics that are beneficial to the group rather than to a few individuals; (3) to stress the enjoyment of the sport and the development of sportsmanship; (4) to promote an intelligent choice of activities for girls which will be in conformity with their structural and functional characteristics, rather than an imitation of the activities, conditions and rules in boys' and men's athletics; (5) to work toward placing the administration and immediate leadership of these activities for girls in the hands of well-trained and properly qualified women.

This last point, the question of leadership of girls' athletics, requires special emphasis. Athletic activities must, before and above all, be properly organized and controlled. Effective control depends for the most part upon competent leadership, and for our girls this means trained *women* leaders. This leadership must supply the technical skill to supervise the amount and

character of activities, thus avoiding the tendencies to evil that destroy physical results. It must supply a social leadership with educational ideals strong enough to keep uppermost the educational and social viewpoints. It must, above all, supply a moral influence with knowledge and skill and character power sufficient to control any tendencies that destroy moral results.

But where may such leadership be secured? This has been answered in some systems by the employment of a trained physical education teacher to supervise and direct such activities. This plan is certainly very good. There is another viewpoint. If the opportunities for influencing the character and morals of our young people are greater in recreational activities than in any other single situation, are religious really missing any possibilities by entrusting the direction of all such activities to secular teachers?

When the recreational activities in our Catholic high schools are properly sponsored and controlled, we may hope that the equally important three R's—namely, Religion, Refinement, and Recreation—may be made to further the good not only of our Catholic educational system but the good of society in general.

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DRAMATIZATION IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY

Whether or not one adopts the viewpoint of John Dewey, that the teacher should not attempt to "make" interesting a subject that he is teaching, the majority of teachers are, no doubt, very much concerned over the problem of interest. Dewey's argument is to the effect that any subject has its own intrinsic appeal to the curiosity of the learner, and that any attempt to "make it interesting" by the teacher is doomed to be superficial. "Sugar-coating" and "soft pedagogy" are terms commonly used to describe such ill-starred endeavors.

Nevertheless, much good has been accomplished in recent years by the use of newer methods and techniques of procedure. The socialized recitation, the project method, the problem method, the use of the concrete, the unit plan, and visual instruction in its manifold forms, particularly dramatization, have in turn been used wholly or with modifications by teachers intent on securing larger and more thorough amounts of learning, by means of arousing more interest and self-identification in study. Much good must accrue from the proper use of any and all of these methods and procedures, but, contrarily, much evil must follow the misuse of any of them. It is the purpose of this paper to study some of the aspects of the function of dramatization in history teaching in the secondary school.

There is an increasing emphasis in discussions of history method, or, better, social science method, on the necessity of the learner's visualizing incidents, places, personages met with in the course of studying. "The past must be made to live again in his imagination," says Dawson,¹ who is so preeminently active in obtaining better teaching of the social studies. To achieve this, he advocates the use of the concrete, first-hand materials, diaries, journals, and excursions. Others would add dramatization. "The principal task of the teacher of history is that of reconstructing for him (the pupil) a vivid realistic picture of bygone times, places, and peoples. The philosophy underlying it all may be more or less beyond him or be only dimly perceived. It is a challenge which he will appreciate as a very real one if he

¹ Dawson, Edgar: *Teaching the Social Studies*, p. 316.

is asked to call up out of the past its great figures decked out in their quaint clothes and the strange environment in which they moved, be it village, or city, or countryside. If he would picture this past as it really was, he will find himself forced to do some clear thinking, eliminating this and adding that, as he tries to get closer to the external features of this strange but fascinating world. . . . History, then, in the junior high school, will consist primarily of pictures, each carefully pieced together like a mosaic."² Again, Knowlton says,³ "The central aim in the teaching of history, that of re-seeing and re-living past times and situations, can be more nearly realized through dramatization than any other device, the picture not excepted." In another place he says,⁴ "We are seeking the dramatic elements in the story, not the philosophic, as we are dealing with boys and girls of from twelve to thirteen years, not with mature men and women." Even in selecting a textbook, one of the tests to be applied is "does it supply the child with a vivid narrative in which the author seeks at all times to preserve the story element, utilizing to the fullest extent the dramatic possibilities inherent in his subject?"⁵ Hatch, in his volume on "Training in Citizenship," says⁶ that working on a dramatized project is one of the most effective means of blending the three aims of citizenship training, namely, inspiration, information, and participation, and he enumerates some of the desirable outcomes of such work. There might be mentioned, among others, the spirit of helpful cooperation, application, good sportsmanship, self-expression, and the development of the imagination. The author gives, as suggested, suitable pieces of dramatization, a naturalization court, the Constitutional Convention of 1787, and the flagmakers.⁷

From this rather cursory glance through several works devoted to history method, which may be taken as representative of the trend in recent books and periodicals, it appears that dramatiza-

² Knowlton, Daniel C.: *History and the Other Social Studies in the Junior High School*, pp. 27-28.

³ *Ibid.*, p. 78.

⁴ *Ibid.*, p. 50.

⁵ Knowlton, Daniel C.: *op. cit.*, pp. 37-38.

⁶ Hatch, R. W.: *Training in Citizenship*, pp. 163-164.

⁷ *Ibid.*, pp. 164-196.

tion, picture making, the wide use of the imaginative capabilities of the learner are regarded most favorably as procedures to follow in social sciences on the secondary school level. Nor is it the purpose of this paper to deny these as fruitful aids to the teacher and the student. But, admitting this, there are remaining several other considerations. It should be noted, in the first place, that in the majority of cases the authors speak not of history but of social science. Now it is commonplace to remark that there is a decided trend in favor of a unit course in social science to take the places of single courses in history, civics, economics, and sociology in the secondary school. But that does not alter the fact that many schools have failed to adopt the suggested curricula of the National Education Association Committee of 1916 or of the Committee of Eight of 1921.⁸ There is much "plain" history still being taught, and Dawson recommends, as a tentative curriculum, a three-year cycle for each of the two units, the junior and the senior high school, of courses in history, enriched, to be sure, by material from the other social studies, but still history, and hence taught with historical method in mind and practice.⁹

The second factor to be considered is this: history has values as a separate study, distinct from the other social sciences. The attempt is not being made here to justify the existence of history in the curriculum, but if it is in the curriculum—and it is—its characteristic values should be conserved and developed. Now, there have been histories and histories, but the general trend today is away from the narrowly political, episodic history of the past to scientific, genetic history. This history is concerned with the whole life of a people. Its chief qualities are continuity, differentiation, and interdependence.¹⁰

The characteristic values of the study of history are the acquisition of two powers, namely, the ability to understand the present in terms of the past, how present situations have developed from the preceding causes and events; and secondly, the ability to determine man's thought, ideas, feelings, and ideals from his

⁸ For these curricula see *The History Inquiry*, p. 9.

⁹ Dawson, Edgar: *op. cit.*, pp. 287-292.

¹⁰ For brief summary of types of history writing, see "History of Education—What Kind Shall We Have?" by the author, *Catholic School Interests*, Number 5, Vol. 8, August, 1929.

actions.¹¹ The essential nature of history is that it is, to a very large extent, a study of causal relations. This means, then, that history must be studied as an active, progressing thing, that the events, places, and personages in history are not self-contained, but, on the contrary, are intimately related in manifold ways with numerous other historical events, places, and personages. In brief, history must be regarded as a process, with its elements possessing not passive but dynamic qualities. The meeting of the Constitutional Convention of 1787, for example, cannot be legitimately viewed as an isolated event, that may, perhaps, have determined in some measure future history of the American people, but did not come as a natural consequence of the working of previous conditions and factors. Nor will it suffice for the student to say that one cause for the breakdown of the Confederation was the inability of the Congress to control interstate trade, unless he is able to explain concretely how the lack of that power worked hardship on the people directly and immediately under the control of the Articles of Confederation. The absence of power over an abstract thing such as interstate commerce means little to the student until he can see in what manner the absence of that power rendered the government under the articles impotent. And so, to carry the analysis further, it was the need for cooperation between Virginia and Maryland over the improvement of the navigation of the Potomac, and cooperation of these same states in settling disputes over the tariffs at the mouth of Chesapeake Bay that brought the leaders, such as Washington, to a realization that a new form of government was necessary. The attempt is not being made here to dispute the fact that there may have operated such abstract forces as desire for unity, but it appears to the writer that an understanding of specific manners in which such abstract forces operated is necessary for the student to achieve.

It may seem that this analysis has been pushed to too great detail, but it is intentional. One commonly hears so many remarks about the generalities of history that it is almost old-fashioned to speak of the minutiae of history. And yet, it is probably true that one cannot really know or appreciate history unless he knows its details.

¹¹ Mace, Wm. H.: *Method in History*, pp. 16-17, and p. 74.

How does dramatization as a procedure in the teaching of history develop the values that have been set forth as legitimate? It is the conviction of the writer that the value of dramatization has been badly misplaced. If one agrees that history is a process, he can hardly maintain that dramatizing bits of history is the correct means to the proper understanding of history. After all, a picture, a portrayal, is an isolated, independent scene. It may captivate the imagination, rouse the better emotions, but it necessarily centers the attention on *it*, not the *milieu* of which it is a part. Moreover, the tendency to portray and dramatize is likely to lead the student to an erroneous notion of the content of history. The Boston Tea Party is an historical event possessing much dramatic potentiality, but the portrayal of this is not nearly as illuminating as an understanding of *why* the colonists were dumping the tea overboard. The coronation of Charlemagne is a captivating historical incident, with the solemn grandeur of the cathedral, the mystery of the Christmas Feast, the ceremonial of priest and Pope, but it does not avail as much as an appreciation of *how* Charlemagne attained the heights of power, or the influence of his reign upon the subsequent history of the Empire and of Europe. In sum, the kind of history that has dramatic possibilities is, in truth, only one kind of history. The military, the episodal, the bizarre—these are dramatic. But one can hardly contend that these constitute the whole of history, or even its most distinguishing characteristics. The main attempt of the so-called "new" history is away from the old episodal type to a genuine account of the interaction of historical peoples and forces. History writing is no longer concerned with the unusual alone, but it strives to give a correct view of the people and times with which it deals. Commonplace? Yes, but nevertheless interesting and, moreover, true to facts. And so, instead of teaching pupils and students about the "quaint" people of the past, we should teach them of these people, quaint in many ways, to be sure, but also human as we are, impelled by the same motives, possessing intelligence, emotions and will. The similarity between peoples is no less striking than their dissimilarity and, for the purposes of mutual understanding, much more helpful.

One daily finds evidence that many people are controlled in

their thinking by the idea that history is made of dramatic elements of life. When the late war was being fought, a constantly appearing statement was that "history was being made." In truth, probably the ordinary course of history was being interfered with more than it had been during the preceding thirty years. Just recently, the writer was reading a newspaper account of the meeting of Victor Emmanuel of Italy and Pope Pius XI, the first since the beginning of amicable relations between Italy and the Papacy. The article received its whole tone from the heading of one paragraph: "History-making Event." It was assumed that the readers would understand why this caption applied. At least one reader did not. A donation by the Pope to a Chinese seminary, however, would receive scant notice. The first is "news," the second isn't. Of course, this is a matter of journalism, but the journalists are products of the teaching of history as "news."

Someone objects that there must be a difference between the teaching of history for high school youngsters and for mature students. Yes, certainly. That, however, does not obviate the fact that there must be a progressive advance toward the understanding of the operation of history. In high school we are not concerned with the philosophic implications (we seldom are even in college), but we can teach some notion of the ideas of continuity and differentiation, some ideas of the elements of history. We can recall past happenings related in some fashion to the present, and we can anticipate the future. The dramatic elements can be conserved, for parts of history are naturally dramatic, but, after all, dramatization is only a stepping stone; the idea of a passive picture is not the ultimate objective. Instead of saying that the student should secure a mosaic of fitted scenes and pictures, let us say that he should secure as complete understanding and appreciation as is possible for his mental maturity. And if he finds that the Swedes, the Irish, the Poles, are not unlike ourselves in many ways, let us not be discouraged, for he is on the highway to truth.

BERNARD J. KOHLBRENNER.

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VALUES IN THE STUDY OF BIRD LIFE

"Had I no revelation but thy voice—
No word but thine—
Still would my soul in certitude rejoice
That love divine
Thy heart his hidden instrument, employs
To waken mine."

Father John Bannister Tabb pays just tribute to the power of the song birds in the above poem, entitled "Bartemeus to the Bird."

It is in the spring that birds make their strongest appeal. They are beautiful; they arouse curiosity; they present so many new and pleasing aspects that they never become commonplace. But, while they charm, they have an even more important claim upon us because of their great economic value.

Many are inclined to think that sentiment about birds is of modern origin. Why, in the very first chapter of the Holy Bible we read that fowls were created "that they may fly above the earth"; and further, "He blessed them, saying, And let the birds be multiplied upon the earth." The Catholic Encyclopedia tells us that many birds have been used for symbolic purposes and, while some of them were used to a degree that now seems far-fetched, they made it clear that religious instruction can be gained from birds. Some of the Christian symbolisms are "that the Dove stood for the Holy Ghost, for when Jesus was baptized the Holy Ghost descended in bodily shape as a Dove upon Him (Luke, iii, 22). The Eagle is the symbol of Christ and His Divine nature, of regeneration by baptism. This bird was also used as the emblem of St. John, because in his Gospel St. John dwells particularly upon the Divinity of the Redeemer and contemplates with the unflinching eye of the eagle the highest truths." The eagle is also the emblem of the United States, typifying strength, courage and hardihood, and appears on the official flags of nine of the states of the Union.

It is related that our forefathers were great students of the Bible, but they seemed to have overlooked the many admonitions throughout the Sacred Book to protect birds; so much so that in the early days of our colonies bounties were offered for

the heads of certain birds and farmers were fined who did not kill their quota each year—a destruction which continued until nature's balance was upset and large hordes of insects invaded our land, causing incalculable injury to crops and forests.

The history of legislative effort for the protection of wild bird and animal life in the United States covers a period of about one hundred years. Looking backwards not quite fifty years, we see the creation of the Ornithological Union for the study of economical relations of birds. It is to this union we owe the present Biological Survey, under our government at Washington. These men study every phase of bird life and their relation to man. They tell us that without this army of defense, "these destroyers of weeds and nature's check upon injurious insects and horrid rodents," within ten years there would not be a vestige of green stuff left. Of these "Little Sisters of the Air," as Saint Francis of Assisi called them, there are more than twenty thousand different species. Two thousand are in South America and seven hundred in North America. Some of the gems of bird world come to us: the humming birds, that Audubon describes as "Glittering fragments of the rainbow," and the heavenly bluebird, quoting Father Tabb again,

"When God made a host of them,
One little flower lacked a stem,
To hold a blossom blue.
So into it he breathed a song
And suddenly, with petals strong,
Away it flew."

From this Ornithological Union sprang the present National Association of Audubon Societies for the Preservation of Wild Birds and Animals.

Quoting its president, Dr. T. Gilbert Pearson, LL.D., this Association, named for John James Audubon, a lover of birds, is for the noble purpose "To preserve something of the wild life of America and to maintain it as a heritage for our children. . . . It has confined its activities to problems concerning the fortune of the wild vertebrate life, and even in this field of conservation endeavor we have ever realized the need of vastly more organized effort than the Audubon Societies will ever be able to undertake." The work extends beyond the borders of the United States into

twenty foreign countries, where it is known as the International Committee for Bird Protection. Doctor Pearson's early activities were centered in colleges in his native southland, as an instructor to youth. To him the needs of educational endeavor soon became apparent. He realized that the essential engine for the promulgation of this doctrine of conservation was through education of children in the schools, because every child interested means one less active destroyer of bird-life and one more active helper. Through the generosity of friends of the birds, he secured an appropriation to start the work. This is known as Junior Audubon Club Work. It maintains eight field agents who go into the schools and lecture to the children as well as to the general public. During the school year of 1928-29, 3,984,000 members were enrolled. Five thousand or more were in the schools of Savannah and Chatham counties, Georgia. At the very end of the state, Savannah is situated, only one other city below it, which is Brunswick. Savannah was the first capital of the state of Georgia and is rich in the early history of the colonies. Its municipal affairs are closely interwoven—i.e., city and county. All of its public schools are under the head of Prof. Ormond B. Strong. The local Audubon club is under the leadership of Henry B. Skeele, a retired capitalist, and a philanthropist. The junior membership (5,045) was distributed through the nine elementary white public schools, two junior high, two parochial, one private in the city, and two elementary colored public schools and one parochial, and the twelve elementary rural schools.

These schools are ideally situated for nature study. Some face on long stretches of marshes, part of the marshes described by Georgia's own poet, Sidney Lanier,

"Ye spread and span like a catholic man,
Who hath mightily won God out of knowledge.
Ye marshes—how candid and simple and nothing withholding
and free,
Ye publish yourself to the sky and offer yourselves to the sea."

"As the marsh-hen secretly builds on the watery sod,
Behold, I will build me a nest on the greatness of God."

Other schools stand on streets and roadsides bordered by giant live oaks and handsome magnolias, festooned with silver gray

moss, through which sunshine and shadow flicker like candle lights under the dome and arches of our magnificent Cathedral of St. John the Baptist. Dogwood trees in their springtime bloom, looking as if a mantle of snow had been laid upon them. In the fall the leaves were bronze, copper and gold. In the winter they were covered with lovely red berries which made royal feasts for the winter and early spring visitors. Flaming azaleas are under the trees and through the streets, giving added touch of color to this bird sanctuary. Sister M. Fides Shepperson, Ph.D., draws a perfect picture of it in "Cloister Chords," a picture of her sanctuary which is like March in Savannah.

Keeping in mind the words of the Saintly Pius X, of Blessed Memory, "Children form a beloved part of our fold. Let us cooperate so that we may combine the two principal aims of modern times—a healthy body in a sound mind," the study of conservation and love of birds is presented in Savannah schools to enlarge and enrich the spiritual experiences—to help boys and girls to see beneath the surface of things day by day, as called upon to deal with them—stressing its strong influence on health, because out-of-door interests are forces for health; to develop sympathy and tenderness, which is the integer of our common fellowship, the bonds which make us ever ready to help one another. To create a cooperating team spirit in all school activities, indoors and outdoors alike. And, as Anna B. Comstock explains, presenting "simple, truthful observations that may, like beads on a string, finally be threaded upon the understanding and thus be held together as a logical and harmonious whole."

The plan of organizing Junior Audubon Clubs is very simple. Each member, in exchange for a dime, is sent six beautifully colored pictures made from original paintings by America's leading artists, also six leaflets—or four pages of text—an outline of each bird, to be colored with crayon or water color, and a button showing a familiar bird, which is proudly worn by the "Bird Defenders."

Catholic students of bird life may have added pleasure by searching through the works of such writers as John Bannister Tabb, John Boyle O'Reilly, Alice Meynell, Katherine Tynan, Francis Thompson, T. A. Daly and Joyce Kilmer and a host of others for their tributes to birds, sometimes in an entire poem or

sonnet, again a flash through the poem just as we catch a glimpse of a beautiful bird rustling through some thicket or resting for a moment on the topmost branch of a tree. It is an avenue which will lead to other "Visions Beautiful."

In Savannah, when this is written, a nature symphony opens with the first light of dawn. A mocking bird is flitting from perch to perch leaving a wake of rippling melody. High up in a tree, under the leaves, the cardinal begins his "What-Cheer, What-Cheer" to his lovely mate. Not to be outdone by such strains of beauty, the modest brown thrasher mounts the topmost branch of a tree, rivalling, as some poet has sung, the voice of an angel. A strong dash of color—a screaming (blue) "jay—jay—jay" and then a "Tap—tap—tap"—a hammer, pick and chisel, all in one bill—the little southern downy woodpecker.

Later in the day somewhere, in some school, one will hear Joyce Kilmer's immortal "Trees" recited by a pupil during the Bird Club meeting.

"A tree that looks at God all day,
And lifts her leafy arms to pray.
A tree that may in summer wear
A nest of robins in her hair."

(MRS.) J. E. WINGO.

CURRICULUM POSSIBILITIES OF OLD TESTAMENT LITERATURE—II

BIBLICAL DRAMA

No apology is necessary in offering a study of Biblical drama to high school students. A retrospective glance to the origin of drama will show what an intimate connection has always existed between religion and drama. That of the Greeks originated from pagan worship, while that of the drama of modern Europe had its origin in the Christian mysteries. The very ritual of our beautiful religion is dramatic.

The experience of those who have taught Homer, Dante and Job to high school pupils has been that the Book of Job meets with just as enthusiastic a response from students as either of the other books. "The drama of Job was one of the three great stories meditated by Shelley for his lyrical dramas."⁹

Our intention is not to deny that drama may not possess all dramatic qualities and yet be Catholic; drama has become secularized so that today it is greatly removed from its religious cradle. What we wish to assert is that there is no conflict between religion and drama and that, moreover, Biblical drama should have an important place in our teaching of the unit. Such a procedure is but just, for religion makes an appeal to the complete nature of man. The study of the drama should, as Brother Azarias says, "live enshrined in a people's thoughts and become part of a people's daily language, a spontaneous expression of the wants and aspirations of the age."¹⁰

The common verdict of the great writers and reliable critics of our own day and of all times has been that the dramatic form of Job is not to be excelled in the entire realm of literature; that it abounds in superior beauties. "The true poet is described as one who to the enraptured soul and ear and eye teach beauty, virtue, truth, love and melody." What could more profitably teach the righteousness of God, and the weakness of a world forgetful of Him, better than this superb drama of the soul,

⁹ Quiller-Couch, Sir A.: *Art of Reading*, p. 189.

¹⁰ "The Law of Literary Epochs." *Philosophy of Literature*, J. J. McVey, Philadelphia, 1899.

which crystallizes for us in full, clear expression all the sublime, elevating and beautiful thoughts to which humanity is heir?

Some allege that scriptural language is too difficult for the students. In answer with Saint Gregory we say, "The Scripture contains simple truths fit for the nourishment of the humble and illiterate, like a river whose current is so shallow in certain parts that a lamb may cross it, and deep enough in others for an elephant to swim through."¹¹

Our objective in teaching this type of Biblical literature should not, as before stated, be to enter into a philosophical study of the drama. We should endeavor rather to lead pupils to the appreciation of a piece of religious literature, which furnishes such splendid examples of truth and beauty of nature and the attributes of God. The approach to the course should be retrospective. It would be well to orient the presentation of Job by questioning students on the varieties of religious dramas previously known in order to determine the foundation upon which the ideas of the present study may be based. We must sound their knowledge on the various kinds of literary appreciation and their comprehension of the technique of drama. Relying upon the "stock of material" previously learned, we explain in concrete terms and on the level of the students' capacity, the principles upon which all true drama rests. Pupils will be eager to learn something as to how present forms evolved, and the time devoted to this study is profitably spent. They come to realize that although drama will vary from time to time in tone and subject, standards remain, and that, to be adequate, principles on which drama is built should be spiritual, to the extent that they concern the essential in life. In it, as Browning says, "God and the soul stand sure."¹² To begin our treatment, we show that the Book of Job lacks none of the elements of other dramas in its technique and its poetical medium. The establishment of this fact will be a wonderful help to developing students' understanding of the unit; it will arouse their interest and thus enlarge their capacity for appreciation. Once students perceive that this drama is vitally related to life and that the studying of it means contact with the great of another period, though remote, and a

¹¹ Chateaubriand, DeViscount: *Genius of Christianity*, Chapter IV. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia, 1884.

¹² "Saul," 1.

means of enriching their own lives, they will be interested. Having motivated interest in the place Biblical drama holds in their lives, the groundwork upon which its structure is to be built, we proceed to the reading of the drama.

Here, as in the presentation of each type of Biblical drama, the methods of approach are merely suggested. The hints as to procedure in the teaching of Bible literature have been merely to indicate what has been done to arouse interest in this study. Experienced teachers will wish to handle material in their own way; and, in its last analysis, the success of the teaching of literature is largely dependent upon the personality of the teacher. Never was an aphorism truer than is the adage in connection with presenting Biblical drama, "Weapon sacred to a master hand is full of peril for a weaker muscle." Job should be read and interpreted as a whole, not in or by isolated passages torn from the context. Students must analyze it in the light of modern drama. Some will realize that one of the best examples of the setting in the entire field of literature is to be found in Job. Many have enjoyed outlining the book into acts and scenes, and making plot schemes are profitable. Others enjoyed contracting the spirit and attitude at the feast and again when Job "sat among the ashes." A knowledge of the customs of Eastern villages proves interesting, as is the discovery that some of these customs still prevail. Pupils could be led to see that the elegies of Job are used by the Church in her days of mourning for Christ's Passion and Death. Reports and oral talks on any of these approaches have proved stimulating.

Special attention should be called to the graphic metaphors of Job, the like of which are not to be found anywhere else in literature. We find impressive quotation of a passage, say, on the greatness of God, or the selection of such lines as "Hell is naked before Him," "He withholdeth the waters in the clouds," "He taketh His scarf from kings and girded their loins with a cord," and "The wicked shall be blasted as a vine when its grapes are in the first flower, and as an olive tree that casteth its flowers."¹³

We have with profit sought comparisons expressed in few words and memorized some striking passages. Students note appro-

¹³ Chateaubriand, DeViscount, *op. cit.* Many pupils in the class would profit from reading chapters six to ten on comparisons of Homer and the Bible.

priate dramatic background, calling particular attention to changes in sky and atmosphere. Search questions reveal that Biblical phrases have been used, if not as plots, at least as seeds of plots by many of our modern writers—to name just two out of the several others, "The House of Mirth" and "The House of Rimmon." One might have students select passages that have been used as the themes of great paintings and ask them to select passages which they would like to see painted.

Supplementary reading may be assigned in Racine's "Athalie," which Chateaubriand says is "the most perfect production of genius inspired by religion." "Good Friday," by John Masefield, "Lazarus," by Andreye, and "The Maidens of the Mountain," by Stephen, would be profitable.

It would be a fitting climax to close the study of the drama by the presentation of "Jepthah's Daughter," by Elma E. Lovinger.

SISTER M. LUCIA.

NEW ORLEANS: MEETING PLACE OF THE N. C. E. A.

The annual meeting of the National Catholic Educational Association, which will be held in New Orleans June 23 to 26, bids fair to be one of the most important conventions in the history of the association. This will be the first large gathering of Catholic educators since Pope Pius XI issued his clarifying encyclical on the Christian Education of Youth. Members of the association will gather from all dioceses of the United States to take part in the proceedings. The committee in charge of the preparations, mindful of the widespread interest in the meeting, are arranging a program that will attract national attention. The convention will be under the auspices of the Most Rev. John W. Shaw, D.D., Archbishop of New Orleans, who will welcome the delegates at the opening session.

It is appropriate that an event of such consequence should be held in New Orleans, a city rich in Catholic tradition. From its very early history Catholics have been connected with the development of this section. Catholic missionaries accompanied the Catholic discoverers, De Soto, Iberville, La Salle, and Bienville, in the exploration of the territory embracing the city. In 1718, Bienville selected the present site of New Orleans as provincial headquarters, and the plans as drawn up included a parish church which was dedicated to St. Louis and occupied the spot which the old St. Louis Cathedral later occupied.

Visitors who attend the convention will have an opportunity to enjoy many of the old relics of the past. Schoolmen will linger in the Cabildo which Don Andres y Roxas built for a legislative assembly. Here, on November 30, 1803, Spain transferred Louisiana to France, and three weeks later France, in turn, transferred the vast province to the United States. Nearby, the Cathedral of St. Louis has remained little changed since the days when Don Almonaster spent \$50,000 on it, asking only in return perpetual prayers for the repose of his soul. Another historic place which the visitor will want to see is the Jesuit Church of the Immaculate Conception, the first named in her honor after the declaration of the dogma in 1854. Many will also be attracted to old St. Mary's, which was formerly the chapel of the Ursulines, where

prayers were offered during the battle of New Orleans and where the Te Deum was sung while Andrew Jackson knelt in thanksgiving for the victory over the British.

One of the quaintest sights of the city is the old St. Louis cemetery, where lie men associated with early French and Spanish days and where are walls with apertures in which are placed the dead of the poor. Then there are the "Haunted House," where Lafayette was entertained; the "Napoleon House," where Dominic You, the pirate, was to have brought the Little Corporal; and there is the "Absinthe House," where the pirate La Fitte used to issue orders to his buccaneers interested in "pieces of eight."

Canal Street, 200 feet broad, is the great business thoroughfare and cuts the city in two, the portion below being known as the French quarter, or Vieux Carre, and the portion above as the American quarter. In the French quarter, many beautiful residences, surrounded by flowers and semi-tropical plants, are to be seen on Esplanade Avenue. Here dwelt the old Creole families, descendants of the early French or Spanish settlers; here French is still spoken as a mother tongue, and French customs are still observed. Traces, also, of the Spanish régime are to be found in many interesting specimens of the Hispano-Moresque style of architecture, which, with the red-tiled Spanish houses and the exquisite ironwork of the balconies, make this portion of the city unique. Above Canal Street the principal residence streets are St. Charles Avenue and Prytania Street. These stretch for miles through the prettiest section of the city. Here are the most beautiful gardens. The palm, the palmetto, the fig, the orange, and the magnolia grow in tropical abundance, and even in winter the atmosphere is often perfumed with the odor of roses, violets, and sweet olive.

Visitors to the convention will have an opportunity to enjoy many side trips, including one to the Mississippi Sound, a charming historic section of the Gulf coast. It was to this part of the coast that the Acadians came when they left Nova Scotia after the loss of their lands by the Treaty of Utrecht. Their story has been touchingly told by the poet Longfellow.

Not all of the interesting places of the Crescent City, however, are connected with the past. While New Orleans glories in its traditions and shows proudly the marks of its early history, vis-

itors will be impressed by the progressive spirit of the city. This was shown recently by the building of an industrial canal between New Orleans Harbor and Lake Ponchartrain, thus making a new route to the gulf for ocean vessels. A public belt railroad 74 miles long, owned by the city of New Orleans, coordinates all rail lines entering the city, all wharves, warehouses, and factory sites. Skyscrapers may be seen all along Canal Street, and a group of modern hotels are conveniently situated. The New Municipal Auditorium in which the association will meet is one of the most up-to-date convention halls in the country.

Catholic New Orleans is particularly proud of its schools, its academies, colleges, and university. In the city proper there are forty-nine parochial schools for white children and eight for colored children. In the white schools last session there were 18,311 pupils of grammar grade; in colored schools 3,144. The high schools had an enrollment of 2,132 pupils. Three hundred and thirty-five Religious Brothers and Sisters devote themselves to the children in the parochial schools. With the same Christ-like spirit and devotion which characterize the Teaching Orders everywhere, in the true practice of Poverty, Chastity and Obedience, they succeed in holding high the standard of the schools.

A number of private high schools are provided for girls. Among these are the schools conducted by the Dominicans, the Ursulines, the Religious of the Sacred Heart, Sisters of Mt. Carmel, Sisters of Perpetual Adoration, Sisters of Charity of St. Vincent de Paul, Sisters of St. Joseph, Sisters of Notre Dame and Sisters of Mercy. The high schools for boys include the Jesuit high school which was recently built at a cost of one and a quarter million dollars and has a capacity of 1,200 students. Other boys' high schools are Holy Cross College, conducted by the Brothers of Holy Cross, and St. Aloysius' College, operated by the Brothers of the Sacred Heart.

At the head of the higher institutions of learning is Loyola University, which comprises the Liberal Arts College, the College of Sciences, and the professional schools of Law, Dentistry and Pharmacy. Loyola University, whose beautiful buildings and grounds are pointed out to all visitors, is situated on St. Charles Avenue opposite the magnificent Audubon Park. The Dominican College and Normal School at St. Charles Avenue and Broad-

way offers a four-year college course fully approved by the State Department of Education. The Ursulines have recently opened a Junior College in a beautiful building on State Street Drive. The Sisters of Mt. Carmel, in their stately edifice overlooking the lake, have a two-year normal school, besides the regular high school.

Visitors to the National Catholic Educational Convention this June will be largely repaid if they find time to see the Catholic institutions of learning along with the quaint scenes and the industrial projects of "America's Most Interesting City."

JAMES E. CUMMINGS.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES

CATHOLIC HIGH SCHOOL EDUCATION MORE CENTRALIZED

That Catholic secondary education is showing a marked trend toward the concentration of high school facilities and the replacement of small parish high schools with large central high schools is demonstrated statistically in a detailed study just completed by the Department of Education, National Catholic Welfare Conference, for the 1930 edition of *The Directory of Catholic Colleges and Schools*.

As this particular phase of Catholic high school distribution was studied for the first time only in the 1928 Directory, the results of the study for the 1930 Directory offers the first basis of a comparison.

In reporting on its latest survey, the N. C. W. C. Department of Education says:

If the Catholic four-year high schools in the United States are assembled in groups in such a manner that group one includes all schools enrolling 1 to 50 students; group two, those schools with 50 to 100 students; group three, the schools having 100 to 150 students, etc., it is found that over 28.8 per cent of the high schools have fewer than 50 students and 32.4 per cent have 50 to 100 students. Thus 61.2 per cent of the high schools have an enrollment not exceeding 100 students, and 3.6 per cent of the high schools have an enrollment exceeding 500 students. In the similar study made in 1928, it was found that 65.4 per cent of the high schools had an enrollment not exceeding 100 students and 3 per cent of the high schools had an enrollment exceeding 500 students. It will thus be seen that there has been a decrease in the number of small high schools and a corresponding increase in the larger high schools during the two-year period.

VILLANOVA COLLEGE IS SEEKING LARGE DEVELOPMENT FUND

Villanova College has inaugurated a program of development to enlarge its usefulness in the field of Catholic higher education. A fund of \$2,300,000 is being sought to carry forward the program.

The program is broad in scope and is intended to aid every phase of education at Villanova. The program of development

was prepared by the Augustinian Fathers of Villanova after consideration of the recommendations made by a Committee on Development composed of more than one hundred business and professional men.

But three of the 160 Catholic colleges and universities in the United States have endowments of more than two million dollars, declares the publication *For God and Country*, issued by Villanova College. Marquette University of Milwaukee has an endowment of \$2,617,241; Creighton University of Omaha, an endowment of \$2,317,488; and the Catholic University of America at Washington, D. C., an endowment of \$3,367,292, the publication states.

"In contrast to these three institutions," says *For God and Country*, "there are nearly a hundred non-Catholic colleges with endowments in excess of two million dollars each." Villanova itself has no material endowment.

Among the endowed non-Catholic institutions of higher learning mentioned are Harvard, with an endowment of \$90,000,000; Yale, \$69,867,269; University of Pennsylvania, \$16,669,000; Swarthmore, \$5,500,000; Haverford, \$4,188,313, and Drexel, \$2,935,000.

FR. BURKE TO BE GIVEN DEGREE BY NOTRE DAME UNIVERSITY

The Rev. Dr. John J. Burke, C.S.P., General Secretary of the National Catholic Welfare Conference, will receive the honorary degree of Doctor of Laws from the University of Notre Dame on Sunday, June 1, the Rev. Charles L. O'Donnell, C.S.C., president of the University, has announced. Father Burke will deliver the baccalaureate sermon on that day.

COURSES IN HOSPITAL ADMINISTRATION

Courses in Hospital Administration, conducted under the instruction of Miss Carolyn E. Gray, Member of the National League on Nursing Education and Chairman of the Committee on Nursing Education for Colleges and Universities, are given at the College of St. Teresa, Winona, Minnesota.

The courses in Hospital Administration are given as a part of the Combined Course in Nursing and Liberal Arts leading to the Degree of Bachelor of Science in Nursing. The Certificate of

Registration for Nurses and a diploma from an accredited high school are prerequisites for enrollment in these courses. Enrollment for these courses this year represents a 100 per cent increase over the enrollment in 1929, when the courses in Hospital Administration were first introduced at the College.

EUCCHARIST "WATCH" AT NOTRE DAME

The initiation of perpetual adoration of the Blessed Sacrament by the students of the University of Notre Dame has been attended by remarkable success, it is revealed in the Report of the Prefect of Religion which has just been made public as an official bulletin of the University.

In place of the Religious Survey of the University of Notre Dame, published annually for the last eight years, the University presents this year the annual report of the Prefect of Religion for the scholastic year 1928-29, it is stated in the publication. The report is accompanied by supplementary documents and is a description of the system used in developing the religious life of the students, experiences with perpetual adoration, an appraisal of personnel service and reprints of the daily religious bulletins.

"While there were not many outstanding features this year, there was one innovation that was decidedly out of the ordinary," says a foreword to the Report written by the Rev. John F. O'Hara, C.S.C., Prefect of Religion. "This was a beginning of perpetual adoration of the Blessed Sacrament by the students. It is a singular mark of divine favor that this devotion, which is usually the privilege only of convents of cloistered nuns, should be initiated and carried to successful conclusion entirely by students. That it was a success may be judged from the fact that while only five hundred half-hours of adoration were necessary for the success of the enterprise, it was found at the end of the month that approximately five thousand such periods had been spent by students in adoration before the Blessed Sacrament.

"My suggestion for the next scholastic year is that facilities for adoration be provided during Lent as well as in May. It is quite possible that a sufficient number of students would be willing to keep up this devotion through the entire school year (many of them have asked for it), but it seems prudent not to attempt too much at the beginning."

NEW PRIORY TO BE BUILT BY BENEDICTINES

Contracts soon are to be let for the erection of a new and permanent St. Anselm's Priory near the Catholic University of America here, it has just been announced. St. Anselm's is the foundation of a group of American priests who joined the Benedictines of the English Congregation for the purpose of this foundation. The priory one day will form a permanent and independent abbey.

St. Anselm's Priory was founded for the promotion of scientific research by a group of American priests who went to Scotland and made their novitiate and simple profession in the English Congregation of Benedictines at Fort Augustus. The first Prior of St. Anselm's was the Rt. Rev. Wulstan Knowles, O.S.B., who recently was made Abbot of Fort Augustus, in succession to the Rt. Rev. Joseph McDonald, O.S.B., who was named Archbishop of St. Andrews and Edinburgh, Scotland. The present Prior is the Very Rev. Adrian A. Weld-Blundell, O.S.B.

The new priory is to be built of brick and stucco, in the Tudor style. It is to be situated on the 60-acre tract on which the present priory, a large frame structure, now stands. The edifice will contain a chapel, with monastic choir. It will occupy a place near what will be the intersection of Michigan and South Dakota Avenues, which, in the plan for greater Washington, will be broad and important thoroughfares. The priory will cost in the neighborhood of \$100,000.

RELIGIOUS VACATION SCHOOL NOTES

The Religious Vacation School movement has found its way into nearly every diocese of the country, and has the approval of the Hierarchy. His Grace, Archbishop Dowling, of St. Paul, has authorized Rev. James Brynes, diocesan superintendent of schools, to take steps leading to the unification and extension of Religious Vacation Schools in the Archdiocese of St. Paul. Thirty-five pastors are arranging with the N. C. W. C. Rural Life Bureau for Vacation Schools this summer.

Rt. Rev. Francis J. Tief, Bishop of Concordia, addressed a pastoral letter to his diocese under date of the Feast of the Purification, February 2, 1930, in reference to Vacation Schools in which he says:

"The Vacation Religious Schools conducted in several parishes of the diocese have produced splendid results. . . . It is our wish that the Vacation Religion Schools be conducted in every parish of the diocese where there is no parochial school. A uniform system of conducting these schools must be observed in order to obtain the best results. Hence, we have placed the supervision of this matter under the Diocesan School Board, to whom all applications for teachers and dates must be made. The Board will send out information later on the organization of these schools."

Rev. Edward Hill, secretary of the Mission Society of St. Patrick's Seminary, Menlo Park, California, writes in reference to the group of students at St. Patrick's Seminary who are preparing to be vacation school catechists this summer: "In our course this year we have enrolled approximately sixty students. There are ten classes of one hour a week, at each of which two lessons are given by two of the students, their fellow students in the audience representing the 'children.' Besides these two lessons a particular topic is treated by another of the students, such as 'The Organization of Classes,' or 'The Problem of Keeping Attention in Vacation School Classes,' etc. These latter problems are treated especially by students who have had experience in vacation school work during the previous summer.

"Thus, in the ten classes, twenty lessons are given, and ten particular problems treated, all of which have been diligently prepared by the students concerned and summarized in notebooks by the others attending the classes."

JOURNAL OF HIGHER EDUCATION

In January of this year the Ohio State University began the publication of a new journal entitled *The Journal of Higher Education*. The journal is issued under the editorship of W. W. Charters. The assistant editors are W. H. Cowley and Josephine MacLachy. School officials will gain much information regarding the most progressive movements in college and university education by reading this important addition to the list of American educational journals.

PURCHASE OF ST. NICHOLAS MAGAZINE

Purchase of *St. Nicholas*, one of the most famous literary maga-

zines in America, has been announced by Maurice R. Robinson, president of the Scholastic Publishing Company of Pittsburgh, publishers of the *Scholastic*, the national high school magazine used as a supplementary text in English and the social sciences. *St. Nicholas* was sold by the Century Company, which has published it since 1881. *St. Nicholas* will be continued by The Scholastic Publishing Company under the same name with all traditional features that have given it so honorable a place in American children's literature.

WORLD ESSAY CONTEST

The American School Citizenship League is conducting a World Peace Essay Contest which is open to students of all countries. Two sets of prizes, to be known as the Seabury Prizes, are offered for the best essay on one of the following subjects:

1. "The Teacher's Opportunity to Strengthen the Kellogg-Briand Pact." Open to students in Normal Schools and Teachers' Colleges.

2. "How Would World Peace Benefit the Youth of the World?" Open to all students in Secondary Schools.

The contest will close July 1, 1930. The conditions of the contest may be secured by writing to Dr. Fannie Fern Andrews, 295 Commonwealth Ave., Boston, Mass.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES

The Diagnosis of Health, by William R. P. Emerson, M.D. New York and London: D. Appleton and Company, 1930. Pp. xrv+272.

Perhaps the most interesting feature of this very suggestive volume is its demonstration of the possibilities of common-sense health habits. It is futile to provide elaborate medical services for college students if they are not taught to observe the more obvious rules of everyday personal hygiene. Doctor Emerson's first distinction lies in the fact that he has been so successful in teaching these simple rules.

Facts and figures are presented to show that such teaching is necessary. Information gathered from 834 college men including 191 medical students showed that 72 per cent had irregular habits of living, 28 per cent habitually overdid—and so on down the list.

Doctor Emerson's answer to these conditions is the "physical fitness class." Underweight college students are brought together and the causes of their poor health are discussed. The elimination of faulty health habits is reflected by a gain in weight—a tangible evidence of the value of the class which is very apt to impress the student.

A particularly interesting feature of the book is furnished by the case studies recounted in Chapter XXVI. These include both college students and younger children. There we read, for example, of the chess player who was under weight because every moment of his spare time was devoted to his hobby. We read also of the athlete who gained 14½ pounds and thus brought himself into the proper condition to go out for basketball and crew. These and similar case studies make the author's ideas concrete and interesting.

Throughout the book Doctor Emerson places a major emphasis on the use of the height-weight chart. In doing so he differs from the majority of authorities in the field of child health. Studies by Baker and Blumenthal, Dublin and Gebhart, and others have shown that weight is a very unreliable index of physical fitness. The tendency among authorities has been, therefore, to discount the value of this method.

There is room for criticism also in the chapters on social and personality examinations. Anyone familiar with the pitfalls revealed by modern research in rating schemes of personality cannot but wonder at the assurance with which Doctor Emerson treads in these difficult fields.

In spite of these defects the book will undoubtedly find a large circle of readers. Anyone who argues for the cause of common sense in health habits does a real service to the public.

PAUL H. FURFEY.

Principles of Adolescent Education, by Ralph Dornfeld Owen, Ph.D. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1929. Pp. 433.

The present text is a recent addition to the literature dealing with the secondary school. One's first impression that here is something new in the manner of treating this section of our educational organization grows into a conviction of the wisdom of the author's manner of dealing with the various topics. The sameness which has characterized so many books in the particular field is strikingly absent in the present treatment. The discussion is at all times stimulating and provocative of thought.

Designed to serve as an introductory text, it can very easily be used as the basis for more advanced courses, especially where anything resembling a discussion method is employed. From the first to the last page, the considerations proposed open up avenues of thought which are far reaching in their application to school life.

Considerable emphasis is placed upon the necessity of vocational training—but not without warrant. Education to be real must be in touch with life and vocational demands naturally represent a very important aspect of life for many individuals. The discussion of elimination also affords a justification for the attention paid to vocational training. Conspicuous, also, is the stress placed upon the religious side of education. While Catholics will consider the procedure suggested largely as a compromise, it is encouraging to note that others have begun to perceive the insufficiency of purely secular education and to voice a demand for wider provision for religious needs.

Many phases of the work could readily receive a larger treatment but such would be beyond the scope of the present volume.

The curtailment in the historical section and the omission of many statistical enumerations frequently found in similar works are well justified. In fact, one is led to ask if the citation of various cases in certain sections might not profitably be reduced.

Texts of this type are for students not specialists. The present one is for beginners, and it may be stated that it is far superior to many others for this purpose.

JOHN R. ROONEY.

Father Finn, S.J., *The Story of His Life as told by Himself.* Benziger Brothers, 1929. Price \$2.50.

Those who associate Father Finn with writing will be surprised to discover his unusual parish activity in Cincinnati for more than a quarter of a century—the growth of St. Xavier's free parochial school, his promotion of the Little Flower Library, and his remarkable sodality work. One finishes reading this story as told by himself firm in his resolve to pray daily for the priests who minister to him. The arduous work of the confessional alone sapped Father Finn's vitality frightfully, for his struggles with ill health were really a cross.

Not the least inspiring material in the volume is Father Finn's common sense. Upon being told early in life, for instance, that he must live on a diet of milk the rest of his life, that death impended, he went to another doctor and asked St. Joseph to help. The previous diagnosis proved unfounded. "Whenever Providence sends me a facer," he used to say, "I generally turn to God in prayer." Other spiritual nuggets come to light often enough to encourage prospecting. "Suffering again and again from extremely low spirits, which I later discovered were a part of my malady, I had put my troubles in the hands of God. As the sequel shows, He never failed me." "When the devil sees it is to no purpose to assail a man with the greater temptations, he frequently tries to catch him by means of some weakness. And frequently, as soon as the devil sees that his snare is detected, he gives up."

We open the biography eager to find Father Finn's remarks about children's reading and are not disappointed. He himself spent a childhood under the spell of Dickens—a situation fortunately almost impossible today; but while the children of the

present decade have a wider and better choice in this matter than did those of the Civil War period, the influence of reading matter on the growing mind is as deep as ever. Father Finn's "Catch 'em young" epitomizes the best procedure and suggests the necessity for a greater dedication of talent to the writing of children's books.

The only chapter Father Finn did not finish dealt with *On the Run*, which Father Lord tells us Father Finn did not like. Peculiarly, it is the only one of his books I ever read. I wish I might have told him of my experience with a college freshman who read the book every year from his tenth to his seventeenth—and may still be reading it annually. Each re-reading delighted him so much that when he discovered I had never read anything of Father Finn's he brought his perennial source of joy to get my reaction.

For teachers the chief value of the biography lies perhaps in its review of Father Finn's life as educator—the successes and failures that lingered in his mind after almost a half century, the inspiration a good student always lent him. His psychology in handling boys may not be new, but it is practical and, unfortunately, still unknown to many who have every need for it. I read the book at a sitting—every word of it, despite the unsuitable dust cover, illustrations, and end papers—and then passed it on to a youth in whose success as a teacher I am interested. I can think of no better recommendation.

BURTON CONFREY.

The Blairs Papers (1603-1660), by M. V. Hay. London and Edinburgh: Sands & Co. 15 shillings.

The Blairs Papers in St. Mary's College are the remains of the episcopal records carried into exile by Archbishop Beaton of Glasgow along with his personal correspondence with the Stuarts which he bequeathed to his foundation, the Scots College, in Paris, together with numerous letters which passed between the Scottish Jesuits in Madrid, Douai, Rome, and Paris and those on the Scottish mission. A large share of the collection was lost during the French Revolution and again in transit to Scotland, where some of the documents were brought by the famous historian Abbé Macpherson (1798) and finally reached Bishop Kyle in

Aberdeenshire. Other papers in the merged English-Irish-Scottish College of Paris found their way to St. Mary's in 1837, where they are controlled now by the Catholic bishops of Scotland. While roughly calendared by the Historical Manuscripts Commission (1869), the archives of St. Mary's muniment-room have never been tapped by historians. Major Hay of Aberdeen has commenced to go through these papers, and as an initial result of his researches this volume appears on the centennial of Catholic Emancipation and the foundation of the national preparatory seminary at Blairs near Aberdeen.

The author knows Scottish history, and he is conversant with the Kirk inventions and legends which have been passed on as history since the Protestant Revolt. As he writes for historians, the volume is full of organized, analyzed documents or extracts from letters with explanatory footnotes and annotations which no historian of the period can ignore. For the student of Scottish history there is material of deep interest, though naturally there is little appeal for the popular reader.

The first chapter based on Jesuit news-letters tells the story of the ill-fated Montrose expedition, of Prince Charles' intrigues with Catholics and Covenanters, of the battle of Dunbar, of the coronation at Scone, of the invasion of England, of Charles' escape after Worcester, and of Henrietta Maria in France. The Jesuits had splendid sources of information: for example, even Gen. David Leslie, the Cromwellian, had two cousins who were priests. Indeed, a Jesuit in disguise was on ship with the returning Scottish commissioners. The Jesuits were loyal cavaliers, and they were ordinarily of the families of chieftains and lairds. They urged support of Montrose even in Rome, and they beat up Aberdeenshire for recruits. Cromwell's success eased the persecution of Catholics by the Kirk and its extreme Covenanters who would abandon the Lord's Prayer as Popish. Indeed the decade of 1650-60 was a better time for Catholics, and one in which Jesuits on mission and the mass-priests had success in reviving the old faith. The Covenanters had lost caste, for this self-chosen people of God had prayed in vain for victory over the Cromwellians. And Cromwell was no violent persecutor of Catholics outside Ireland. Father Gall's version of Charles' escape is probably the story as related by the king to the queen

mother with whom this distinguished Jesuit was on intimate terms. Not infrequently there is material which the late Samuel R. Gardner would have found valuable in writing his *History of the Commonwealth*. Of the rebel chieftains there are notes, and even of the inferior Scottish prisoners, some of whom were "sold as slaves or sent to America."

Several chapters are concerned with the Scottish colleges abroad; Claremont College in Paris, the Scots College in Paris which dates to Robert Bruce only to be revived by Beaton and whose old farm at Grisy after 600 years is still held by the Scottish hierarchy, the Scots Colleges at Douai, at Rome, and at Madrid (later, under seculars at Valladolid). All save Beaton's school were under the Society of Jesus, which was primarily interested in educating men for the Scottish missions, though some gentlemen's sons were tutored. Claremont and Rome furnished seculars for the missions. Each school was an oasis for wandering Scots, and Scotland had its "wild geese" in continental military service. Even an occasional Calvinist dropped in at a college where he found that blood was a strong bond in a foreign land. Here for the first time there is a connected story of such royal Scots as William Ballentine and John Walker, secular prefects of the mission, who labored well for the Church and fought the presbyters with pamphlets, and of Jesuits like Seton, Christie, Leslie, Monteith, Anderson, Gordon, Semple, and Macbrek.

Of the colleges there is a worthy insight, even a demonstration of the author's observation: "One of the most important contributions made by the Jesuits to the reformation of education in Europe was their insistence upon the importance of establishing between master and pupil a feeling of confidence and of friendship." Of Scotland itself under George Monck, there is material as well as curious information concerning presbyters and mass-priests. The only shadow is the contention between Jesuit and seculars who were fighting for the same end against the same foe, yet displaying in milder form that lack of toleration which was so characteristic of Scotland and of the relations between the violent sectaries themselves. The seventeenth century knew little of toleration, and nowhere less than in the land of John Knox.

RICHARD J. PURCELL.

Short Stories for Study and Enjoyment, by Harold T. Eaton. Doubleday, Doran and Co., 1929. Pp. xvii+553.

Study and Appreciation of the Short Story, by Johnson, Cowan, and Peacock. Silver, Burdett and Co., 1930. Pp. lx+386. Price, \$1.20.

Both of these attractively bound volumes are essentially collections of short stories intended for high-school use. Such collections are neither scarce, nor, as a rule, very distinctive; usually, and almost necessarily, they duplicate one another's stories. The distinguishing mark of Eaton's *Short Stories* is that of its thirty-one excellent stories, selected from twenty-eight representative authors, negligibly few have been used in other school collections. Again, though in "Part II: Earlier Types of Fiction," Aesop, St. Luke, Boccaccio, Addison, Irving, Hawthorne, and Poe are very desirably represented to illustrate the historic development of the short story, most of the authors included are modern—in eleven instances, still living. This, together with the fact that each story is prefaced with one or two pages about the author and his work, will make the book a welcome desk-copy for busy teachers, who, not specializing in the short story, may indeed know enough about Irving, Poe, and Hawthorne, but very little about more modern authors like William Wymark Jacobs, Mary E. Wilkins Freeman, Christopher Morley, etc. The value from this source is greatly augmented by an excellent reading list of 141 authors and the titles of their more representative stories. This handy information will be appreciated by any teacher who realizes that if instruction in the short story must do anything it must create a discriminating appreciation for the short story as found in contemporary magazines, for it is the one, often practically the only, type of imaginative literature the average American takes time to read.

The classroom or textbook merits of the book may be summed up as follows. An introduction in the fifteen pages on the historical development of the story is too brief to be more than indifferently satisfactory; a discussion, in another fifteen pages, on the technique of the short story, though theoretically satisfactory, is again hardly adequate enough to be of much help to the student unless greatly amplified by the teacher; and six pages on writing short stories serve as little more than an en-

couragement to attempt at least some original work. In short, it is not intended as a textbook on the writing of the short story, though it does not preclude such use. Its merits lie in the stories it presents, and especially the material accompanying them. Each story is introduced with significant information about the author; it is followed with a set of very intelligent questions, calculated "rather to help the student learn than to test his learning" (Preface, p. vii). One of the questions is on word study. These questions, which, one believes, simplify the task of the teacher and intensify the interest of the students, are followed by a consideration with reference to the story studied of some one phase of short-story technique, such as plot, suspense, setting, climax, or character. This feature deserves special commendation. On the whole, students studying this book, even with little help from the teacher, should, first of all, derive genuine pleasure from the stories themselves, few of which are duplicated from other collections, should learn something about many short-story writers, the kind of stories they write and their readers want, and, finally, should acquire a very practical understanding of the elements of a good short story, as well as a critical appreciation of its literary qualities. It is, besides, a book which, one feels, not only teachers but also many students will of their own accord want to read and own.

Of Johnson, Cowan, and Peacock's "Study and Appreciation of the Short Story" not so much need be said. It offers thirty really well-chosen stories by as many authors, many of which are not duplicated from similar collections. But it offers no information about any author, information which is commonly welcomed by both teacher and pupil, especially when living writers like Dreiser, Willa Cather, Seila Kaye Smith, etc., are concerned, nor does it offer questions or problems with its stories. Its reading list comprises sixty authors.

It has, however, fifty pages of good instructional material to help the student to enlarge his "enjoyment of a short story by acquiring a greater appreciation of the artistic workmanship of the author" (p. vi) and "to write one or more complete stories in accordance with the suggestions given" (p. vii). These suggestions, though brief, are practical; each important element of technique is briefly set forth and illustrated, and, finally, some

sample test questions based on three of the included stories are presented. In short, one can designate this volume with its fifty pages of useful instructional material and its thirty well-chosen stories as good, though not particularly better than or different from similar short-story collections on the market.

AUG. J. APP.

The Mass Explained, by Rt. Rev. Alexander MacDonald. The Gorham Press, 1930.

This little booklet is entirely outside the sphere of controversy in its tone and purpose, unlike other writings on the Mass by the Right Reverend author. The first chapter is an emphatic explanation of the oneness of the Sacrifice of the Last Supper and Calvary and the Mass, while the second chapter repeats something of this in question-and-answer form. However fundamental the view of the Mass is as the making present of Calvary, we can hardly consider the "Mass explained" with that one point. The author compares the Mass to Calvary as the fruit to the blossom. What makes it so?

In the light of the literature of the last years, and the growth of the liturgical movement, no explanation of the Mass can today be considered adequate that does not say something of it as the Sacrifice of the entire mystical Christ, and something of the true participation of the faithful in the Mass. Our author quotes texts from the Ordinary that should have led him beyond the meager statement regarding the faithful. "If they assist devoutly with firm faith in the Real Presence, etc.," surely the mind of the Church points to a higher ideal, a more conscious entry into Christ's own sacrifice.

The price charged (\$1.50) is rather high for seventy-five small pages on the Mass, no matter how excellent these might be. Is it justifiable to say: "God had no pleasure in the shedding of the Blood of His Son on Calvary?" (p. 28).

VIRGIL MICHEL, O.S.B.

American History, by Samuel Knox Wilson, S.J., Professor of History, Loyola University. Chicago: Loyola University Press, 1929. Pp. xv+864. (Price, \$1.92.)

It was only a few years ago that teachers of American history in Catholic high schools were complaining that there were no

Catholic texts. Today it is possible to choose from several; and there are rumors of others in the making.

A reviewer in the March issue of the *Mississippi Valley Historical Review* (p. 599) raises the question as to whether "a history must be especially cleansed and purified" for Catholic consumption, "as a group set apart from other citizens and deserving special consideration." Certainly not in a text for general use, though we expect it to be "cleansed and purified" of misstatements respecting the Church. Nor do we commend a style of teaching in our Catholic schools which measures a man's place in history by his religion. Teachers can, and some do, lay too much stress on the religious belief of an individual and make it the peg upon which to hang his sometimes too large cloak of political greatness. A few years ago one of the questions submitted by the Catholic University to the affiliated schools asked the pupil to designate, in his or her opinion, the ten greatest Americans and to give reasons for the choice. One examiner, at least, learned from the answers that there were very few great men who were not Catholic. Governor Smith was a universal selection; the bishop of the diocese usually attained that eminence; and many an unpretentious, humble pastor would have been embarrassed to know that he figured among the great. One student must have been hard put to it to find the tenth Catholic, for her final nomination was "Chief of Police Sullivan!"

All else being equal, the Catholic textbook needs no apology for its adoption in Catholic schools. A college points with pride to the achievements of its alumni; the greatness of a community or state is exalted by its inhabitants: there is more reason for rejoicing in the part played by our co-religionists in the discovery, exploration, and development of our nation. Often, too, religion is the mainspring of action, whether it results in the founding of a colony, urges a missionary to risk his life among the Indians and incidentally to play the rôle of geographer, explorer, and diplomat, or whether it explains a man's course of conduct as judge, senator, or candidate for high office. Above all, our children must be shown that the frequent charges against the patriotic service of Catholics are unwarranted.

Father Wilson's book is an acceptable text, showing, as it does, the Catholic phase of the story without slighting the purely poli-

tical and social account. The special features of his treatment, as stated in the preface, are the elimination of all but important or essential dates, the allotment of more than usual space to colonial history and the origins of government, and the discussion of "defects" in our government as a preparation for intelligent citizenship.

Probably no two teachers will entirely agree as to all that should be included in a text or excluded therefrom. The compiler must exercise his own judgment in such matters. The present volume devotes 36 pages to the roots or background of American history, 235 pages to the colonial era to the end of the Revolution, 270 pages to the period ending with the Civil War, and 285 pages to the years beginning with reconstruction and ending with the inauguration of President Hoover. Some may object that a proportion which allows in a book of this size but 50 pages more to recent history than to the colonial era is not in accord with modern practice which, recognizing the fact that but a small percentage of high-school students will have the opportunity of further study in college, endeavors to fit the pupil to meet present-day problems by curtailing the accounts of the periods of exploration and colonization so as to allow wider discussion of the economic and international questions which have characterized the country's affairs during the past four decades. But there are no serious omissions in the chapters of this book devoted to these recent years. The text is rather long, and it may be well for teachers to make a selection of chapters, especially those covering the years of discovery and colonization, as suggested by the author in his preface. The reviewer would certainly omit from his teaching the too long introductory chapter. The assignment of this as collateral reading would, in his opinion, serve the purpose of reviewing what ordinarily is learned in other high-school courses of history.

In every manual there are proof-reading slips, more or less unavoidable, statements that other historians will question, and the absence of some facts that may seem to the latter to be more or less serious omissions. Of the first the following are noted: South "California" for "Carolina" (p. 67); for "at to traitors" read "as to traitors" (p. 69); "Capot" appears for "Cabot" (p. 102); "Clai-borne" is to be preferred to "Clayborne" (p. 126); Fort Duquesne

is spelled "Duchesne" (p. 208); it was "Brock" and not "Brook" who opposed Hull at Detroit (p. 348); "Sandford" should be "Sanford" (p. 501); and Emmitsburg is misspelled (p. 716).

Other matters that seem to invite comment are the failure to state that Governor Dongan was a Catholic (p. 153); the omission of all reference to the Privy Council and Board of Trade in colonial administration; the Stamp Act was not passed without protest or debate (p. 228); the chief constitutional import of the decision in *Marbury v. Madison* was the practical annulment of the act of Congress which gave the court the right to issue a mandamus; and there is no mention of President Cleveland's reelection. But the reviewer has no desire to make too much of these few criticisms; others may think they are insignificant in a book of such general excellence.

The work is well organized and well written. The chapters are not over-burdened with reading references, as are many high-school texts. One will look far for better textbook writing than is to be found in the accounts of everyday life in America. A wide range of social topics is covered, from tin basins to hansom cabs, from stores to saloons—even the coming of the new Ford is not overlooked. The illustrations and maps are adequate, and the price has been kept within reason.

LEO. F. STOCK.

Planning a Career, by Lewis W. Smith, Ph.D., Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, California; and Gideon L. Blough, M.A., Instructor in Occupational Information, Joliet Township High School and Junior College, Joliet, Illinois. American Book Company, 1929. Pp. 470.

Within the past few years the book market has been flooded with texts attempting to give the student information adequate for an intelligent choice of life work. That in itself is an encouraging indication that schools are attempting to effect happier adjustments to life. Because of the kaleidoscopic changes in occupational fields, in the circumstances of occupations, in the remunerations, and in the supply and demand of labor for each field, no textbook offering vocational information can stand the test of time.

"Planning a Career" is one of the most interesting texts offered. It is based upon the collection and classification of a great mass

of information and the results are stated in language intelligible to the average high school child. It attempts to break away from the "dollars and cents" criterion of a life work and it shows some appreciation for the human values of industry. It stresses, as one might expect, effective citizenship as a primary objective of life.

In the analysis of occupations for men are chapters dealing with "A Cross Section of Occupations," "Agriculture, Animal Husbandry, Forestry, and Fishing," "Extraction of Minerals and Oil Refining," "Transportation and Communication," "Commercial and Clerical Occupations," "Public Service," "Professions," and "Miscellaneous Occupations." A great deal of space is devoted to professions for women. It is gratifying to note the emphasis placed upon the chapter, "The Home-Maker."

General chapters in Part IV of this work treat with principles for the intelligent choice of life work, means of preparation for particular fields, means of securing a position, and "Rewards and Promotions." The appendix contains selections and poems of "Inspiration, Courage, and Counsel."

It is the opinion of the reviewer that a work of this nature to be thoroughly satisfactory to Catholic school principals would stress the social values of individual occupations more and would place entirely different aspects upon service in the ministry and in the profession of teaching. Possibly someone with broad spiritual vision may take as the key to such effort the words of Christ, "For I was hungry and you gave Me to eat; I was thirsty and you gave Me to drink; I was a stranger, and you took Me in; naked, and you covered Me; sick, and you visited Me." Life is worth while in any particular occupation only if we relate it to its proper place in the heart of the Christian ideal; and, strange though it may sound to some ears, every occupation listed in "Planning a Career" can be interpreted as a combination of charity and intelligence in satisfaction of some human need.

MAURICE S. SHEEHY.

A Project in Study Personnel Service Designed to Facilitate Each Student's Achievement at the Level of His Ability, by Alonzo Jones, Ph.D., University of Iowa Studies, Volume V, Number 1. Published by the University, Iowa City, Pp. 59.

Compressed within the few pages of this treatise is a scheme of personnel service that tends to break away from the lockstep

of mass education procedures and, as regards intellectual service, to treat the student as an individual. The problem to which Dr. Jones has devoted himself is that of keeping every student achieving at his level of ability. This involves some insight into the student's abilities on entering college, a constant check-up on progress while in college, and measurement of achievement in relation to self rather than in relation to others.

Dr. Jones, in an experiment as Director of Student Personnel, at Graceland College, Iowa, gauged the level of ability of each student by seven tests, the Iowa Placement Examination, Mathematics Aptitude and Mathematics Training Tests; the Iowa Placement Examinations, English Aptitude and English Training Tests; the Iowa Comprehension Test; the Iowa High School Content Examination, and the American Council on Education Psychological Examination. These seven tests embraced 841 items, requiring five hours and eighteen minutes of working time. With this diagnosis of the student's abilities on entering college, the level of achievement was measured by the relationship of quarterly reports to P-scores of expectancy. The student could thus be informed of his own expectancy level. Ratings were given not absolutely but in the ratio to expectancy so that an average student achieving more than expectancy might receive an A or a B rating, while a student with higher marks but below or on the level of expectancy might receive a C or D rating.

General personnel services in working out this project were organized through the solicitation of faculty cooperation, through faculty conferences, through faculty supervisors, through freshman lectures, and through a course on "Methods of Study." Diagnostic charts were made for each individual of his intellectual progress. The student not achieving according to his possibilities was given special interviews. Time budgets were often found effective remedies for the laggard.

A questionnaire suggestive of possible defects of effort and method of study is given on pages 32 to 34 of this work. This might be used by student advisers who feel at a loss to analyze factors of failure. A number of interesting case reports indicate the effectiveness of this method of approach.

While the viewpoint of student service here is primarily intellectual, consideration of other factors is assured by the system

of interviews. This work, in the opinion of the reviewer, will start the ball rolling towards junking our present system of grades, credits, and honors, a consummation devoutly to be sought. Dr. Jones also gives an adequate bibliography of student personnel service, listing in all 162 works.

MAURICE S. SHEEHY.

God the Redeemer, by Charles G. Herzog, S.J. New York: Benziger Bros., 1929. Pp. 230. Price, \$3.00 net.

This is the third volume of the *Truth of Christianity Series* which is being brought out by the Fathers of the Society of Jesus for the use of students in colleges and universities. It gives in succinct form the doctrine of the Church on the Incarnation, the worship of Christ, the veneration of the Mother of God and the Saints, and the nature and action of divine grace. Inasmuch as all these dogmas have their origin in the doctrine of the Redemption, they have been included here for treatment under the title of God, the Redeemer.

As a scholarly and interesting presentation of Catholic teaching, Father Herzog's volume will be found very serviceable to the general reader. The chapters are short and the author sticks close to his topic. He quotes abundantly from the Holy Scriptures, the writings of the Fathers and the decisions of Councils, thus showing the constancy that has characterized the teaching of the Church on the dogmas he is discussing. Hence, he holds the attention of the reader.

As a textbook for college students, however, the volume leaves much to be desired. Apparently it is taken for granted that the class will confine its study to the text since no bibliography is included and there are no chapter references to other works dealing with the matter treated. To my mind, this is a serious defect in a modern college text. Even in religion, it is not desirable that a student should be a man of one book. If he is not required to consult works of reference, at least he should be given some suggestions as to where he may find orthodox discussions on the dogmas of Faith. Moreover, the questions given at the end of each chapter are such as one might expect in a high school text. They may be answered by merely referring to the pages immediately preceding. This is hardly in accordance with good peda-

gogy. Surely something more than mere memorizing can be required of college students. If it be said that the teacher is free to formulate such questions as he sees fit, then there is no good reason for the inclusion of such cut and dried lists as are here given.

EDWARD B. JORDAN.

Reference Studies in Mediaeval History 180-1498 (in 3 parts), by James Westfall Thompson, Ph.D., University of Chicago Press. \$1 each part.

These paper-bound volumes should be useful to all teachers of European history and to college students following a course in mediaeval history. Originally printed as an outline for classes in Chicago University (1907), this syllabus has gradually grown to imposing proportions. All references are to books and articles in English. The whole is arranged by sections and chapter headings under which there are full bibliographies of books, chapters in scattered works, and articles in historical and other reviews. The number of Catholic references is as large as the small output of valuable material by English-writing Catholics warrants. Sentimental writings are naturally not included. There are handy chronological tables of popes, emperors, and kings, and lists of important dates and events. Professor Thompson in a lengthy introduction discusses the character of mediaeval history, its truth, educational value, content, point of view with which it must be approached, relation to ancient and modern history, position of the church, termini and divisions, methods of study, note-taking and the like. The tone is excellent. Taking this manual from every point of view it is by far the best on the market.

RICHARD J. PURCELL.

My Gift to Jesus: Sisters of St. Dominic. Chicago, Lawdale Publishing House.

"My Gift to Jesus" aims to present Catholic life to young children. Besides the prayers for Holy Mass, and those recited in devout preparation for the reception of the sacraments of Penance and the Holy Eucharist, it contains morning and evening prayers, several approved litanies, a few hymns and short pious readings.

It is a prayer book far more desirable for children than those usually placed in their hands on the occasion of their First Holy Communion, for the prayers are adapted to the child's eye, heart and mind.

The explanation of some parts of the Mass are rather lengthy. The children are likely to consume the time which they should spend in following the priest at the altar, in reading the instructions.

From the text one would judge that "My Gift to Jesus" is prepared for children of nine and ten or thereabouts. At this age it would seem that children should no longer be allowed to depend so much upon the pictures in their prayer book to guide them during Mass. Exception should be made for very slow children, however. The instructions given on the Mass with visual aids should be applied in the actual assistance at Mass where the children look to the priest at the altar for the reality of which many times they have seen the pictures in the class room.

The prayer book would serve its purpose more effectually if it reduced its instructions to a minimum and if it allowed the child to pray the Mass independently of too many pictures.

SISTER M. DOMINICA, O.S.U.

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Educational

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General

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